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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the influence of context on teachers' classroom management decisions represented by the interactive classroom management task of handling student misbehavior. A review of pertinent teacher cognition research suggests that the key to understanding classroom management involves investigation of teachers' cognitions in classroom contexts. A complex teacher decision-making model is synthesized from the literature suggesting important cognitive variables which appear to influence teachers' classroom management interactive decisions in context. An ecocultural theory and model are described and used to explain the classroom context in which these teacher cognitions take place. Elementary school teachers (N=96) answered questions designed to assess their general theories and beliefs about causes of student misbehavior. Mediating cognitions, represented by causal attributes, were then assessed using a vignette design. Results of the study suggest a tendency for teachers to focus on broader contextual frames of reference rather than individual students when making planning decisions. Findings did not provide strong, positive evidence that teachers' higher level cognitions influence their interactive decisions. Assessment instruments used in the study are included in the appendices. (IAH)

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The Influence of Context on Teachers' Classroom Management Decisions

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University of Arkansas, Fayetteville

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association
Chicago, 1991

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The major purpose of the present study was to investigate the influence of context on teachers' classroom management decisions. Teachers' classroom management decisions were represented by the interactive classroom management task of handling student misbehavior. Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981, 1987, 1988) Classroom Strategy Study provided background for the study, and the present work is viewed as an extension of their research. I begin by reviewing pertinent teacher cognition research which suggests that the key to understanding classroom management involves the investigation of teachers' cognitions in classroom contexts. A complex teacher decision-making model is then synthesized from the literature suggesting important cognitive variables which appear to influence teachers' classroom management interactive decisions in context. An ecocultural theory and model are then described and used to explain the classroom context in which these teacher cognitions take place.

By way of background, it should be pointed out that there are different perspectives on the definition, meaning, and importance of context (see Rogoff, 1982, 1990). In investigating the antecedents of behavior, psychologists have focused on cognitive characteristics of the individual, such as motives, personality, intellectual competencies, attributions, and so on. From this perspective, context includes only physical characteristics of the environment, such as physical stimuli or tasks, and is typically viewed as a secondary influence on individual cognitive variables. Cognitions are viewed as epiphenomenal, as stable across situations and settings. However, other findings suggest that cognitions and behaviors vary widely as a function of the various social contexts in which individuals interact (Cole & Scribner, 1974; Rogoff, 1982, 1990; Price-Williams, 1985; Price-Williams & Gallimore, 1980), leading to specific concern for the potential influence of context on cognition and behaviors (see, for example, Werner, 1986; Rogoff, 1982, 1990; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985). From this perspective cognitions are viewed as inseparable from the context in which they take place. The present study was designed from this perspective.

Classroom Management Cognitions in Context

Few other areas of education have generated as much concern from the public, school administrators, and teachers as classroom management (Evertson, Emmer, Sanford & Clements, 1983; Evertson, 1989). Studies of teachers, and especially first year teachers, indicate that matters of classroom management and discipline are the most problematic, generate the most concern (Evertson, 1989; Lasley,

1987; Kremer-Hayon, 1987), and are the topics that are most requested for inservice training (Evertson, et al, 1983). Although a large body of practical literature is available for teachers, it has only been recently that classroom management has become a major interest of educational researchers (Doyle, 1986; Evertson, et al, 1983). As a result, there is a growing body of knowledge on what teachers can do to effectively manage classrooms (see Brophy, 1988; Evertson, 1989; Evertson, et al, 1983; Jones & Jones, 1990), even though classroom management remains an unclear concept that creates a number of ambiguities and carries a number of excessive meanings (Doyle, 1986). Thus, while educators and researchers are increasingly in agreement about what teachers can do to effectively manage their classrooms, they cannot agree on exactly what classroom management is.

I define classroom management as teacher behaviors, cognitions, and emotions that involve organizing the physical environment of the classroom, structuring and organizing social activity for classroom groups, and supervising individual students' behavior, task engagement, and socialization in the classroom. Organizing the physical environment refers to arranging classroom furniture and materials for various activities. Structuring and organizing social activity in the classroom refers to planning, establishing, and conducting classroom activities. This includes planning, establishing, negotiating, and maintaining of rules for social and academic participation, and the grouping of students for these activities. Supervising individual students' behavior, task engagement, and socialization into the classroom environment includes: (1) the monitoring of students both academically and socially; (2) the handling of individual students' misbehavior; and (3) the individual instruction of the social and academic rules and procedures of the classroom. Broadly speaking, then, classroom management may be viewed as the teacher behaviors, cognitions, and emotions which promote good behaviors, prevent misbehavior from happening, or effectively deal with misbehavior once it has happened.

In his review of the classroom management literature, Doyle (1985) concluded that "classroom management is fundamentally an intellectual skill that is based on knowledge about action-situation relationships in classrooms. This knowledge enables a teacher to recognize and interpret what is happening in an exceptionally complex environment" (p. 33). Yet, there is a paucity of research on the cognitive processes which presumably guide effective classroom management behaviors (Doyle, 1986). What is available is more general research findings and theoretical models of teachers' thinking which can provide a framework for classroom management research.

Cognitive Antecedents of Teachers' Classroom Management Decisions

Virtually all of the research on the cognitive antecedents of teachers' decisions has focused on instruction rather than classroom management or discipline. Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981, 1987, 1988) Classroom Strategy Study, one of the few investigations of discipline, provides some insights into potential antecedents of the decision making process of handling misbehavior. This study provides the background for the present work and, thus, deserves some attention.

Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981, 1988) investigated the intervention process of 98 elementary school teachers in dealing with the behaviors of 12 types of chronic student problem types; failure syndrome, perfectionist, underachiever, low achiever, hostile aggressive, passive aggressive, defiant, hyperactive, distractible, immature, rejected by peers, and shy/withdrawn. The teachers were nominated by their principals as being adequate to excellent in classroom management skills. The teachers were first observed for 2 half days and then interviewed at length. The interviews included open ended responses to questions regarding vignettes which depicted specific misbehaviors of each of the 12 types of chronic problems. The responses to the vignettes were coded for teachers' specific causal attributions and what they would do to intervene. The problems depicted in the vignettes were further classified within a framework of problem ownership borrowed from Gordon (1970, 1974). In this framework, the teacher is seen as owning the problem when the student's behavior interferes with the teacher's needs or agenda. The student is seen as owning the problem when others are keeping him or her from meeting his or her own needs or agenda. Finally, a problem is shared by the teacher and student when they are interfering with each others' needs or agenda.

Some general trends emerged in the Brophy and Rohrkemper findings. The teachers tended to see the causes of the misbehaviors as stemming from internal student factors. Furthermore, the teachers tended to emphasize relatively brief, verbal responses to the misbehaviors rather than more time intensive interventions. Nevertheless, these findings revealed a range of teacher responses to the different types of problem behavior, to different levels of problem ownership, and to causal attributions.

Brophy and Rohrkemper (1988) also assessed teachers' general beliefs about their "role definitions--their general beliefs about what teachers should accomplish if they do their job effectively" (p. 159). Brophy and Rohrkemper grouped teachers into those who favored instruction and those who

favored socialization as their primary role. The findings suggested that teachers' general beliefs may have influenced their attributions about specific misbehaviors and about their choices of interventions to remediate the misbehavior. While the differences were minor, the "instructors" were more likely to attribute causes to factors inside the student and use short-term, punitive interventions than were the "socializers" who tended to attribute the causes to both internal and external factors. The "socializers" also tended to choose more long-term interventions which dealt with solving the students' problems by promoting good mental health and personal adjustment. It is interesting to note that while behavioral observations backed up the vignette findings, neither group was more successful than the other in dealing with similar misbehaviors in the classroom.

To explain the results, Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981) conceptualized a process model of teacher strategy construction which "begins with the teacher's perception of a specific event interpreted against a background of previous beliefs and experiences with this type of behavior. This leads to an attributional analysis of the student and the teacher's own potential involvement" (p. 308). The subsequent reactions to these attributions, in turn, influence whether the teacher will intervene and what the intervention will be. Thus, the findings from this study suggest that information about the type of misbehavior, teachers' general beliefs about teaching and learning, and teachers' causal attributions are potential influences on their intervention decisions.

Teachers' Interactive Classroom Management Decisions

Teachers' decisions in the classroom are heavily influenced by their plans (Shavelson, 1987b). Instructional tasks devised in the planning phase of instruction serve as mental scripts or images that are routinized by teachers, thus minimizing the conscious decisions that they have to make in the classroom (Shavelson, 1987b). Teacher reports of their thoughts during instruction suggest that teachers attend to their mental script, becoming "aware of reality" only when their monitoring of the classroom indicates a potential interruption to the routine (Clark & Peterson; 1986; Shavelson, 1987a & b). Such interruptions are typically signaled to the teacher by student misbehavior or lack of student involvement (Shavelson, 1987b). The research on interactive decision making suggests that much of the teacher's attention is taken up by monitoring the classroom (Doyle, 1986). The content of teachers' monitoring appears to include at least three dimensions: (1) the group or the entire classroom to see how the total activity system is running; (2) the conduct or behavior of individuals to discern any inappropriate behaviors for that setting; and (3)

the pace, rhythm, and duration of classroom events to detect possible breakdowns in the system (Doyle, 1986).

Despite the influence of teachers' plans on their interactive decisions, Doyle (1986) suggests the interactive decision making process of teachers in perceiving and handling on-going misbehavior is crucial to the success of the intervention. As Doyle (1986) points out, many misbehaviors cannot be planned for and, thus, teachers cannot rely solely on their plans to guide their interventions. According to Doyle (1986) this "thinking on one's feet" appears to be influenced by the context in which it is taking place. Indeed, recent classroom management studies reviewed by Doyle (1986) suggests that teachers tend to perceive and react to common forms of misbehaviors quite differently depending upon who is misbehaving, when the misbehavior takes place, the type of misbehavior, and the context in which the misbehavior takes place.

From the review above and Clark and Peterson's (1986) and Shavelson and Stern's (1981) models of teachers' thinking, a conceptual model can be synthesized (see Figure 1). Teachers' theories and beliefs represent the highest cognitive level of teacher thought. This propositional knowledge interacts with incoming information, influencing subsequent mediating cognitive processes such as inferences and attributions, which, in turn, influence planning, and interactive decisions. These planning and interactive decisions, in turn, influence teachers' behaviors. This complex decision-making model guided the present investigation.

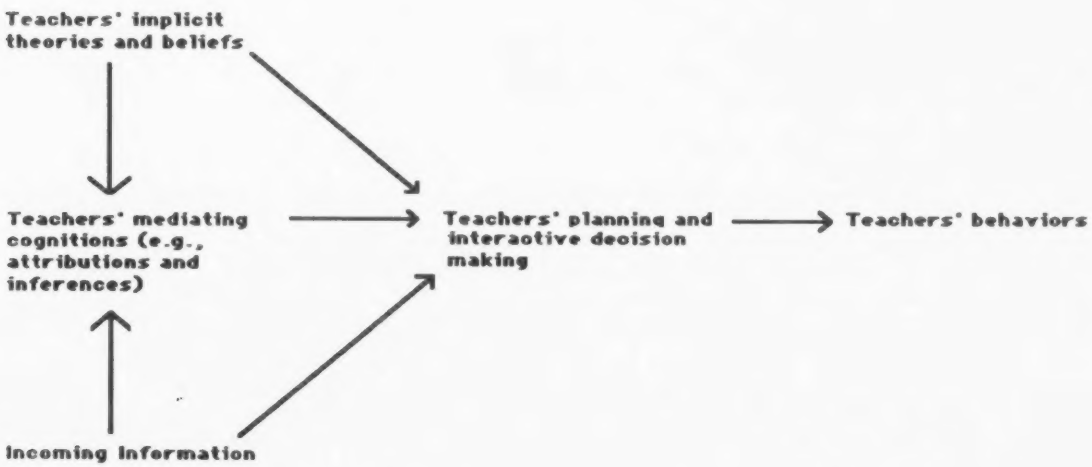
Teachers' implicit theories and beliefs
Teachers' mediating cognitions (e.g., attributions and inferences)
Teachers' planning and interactive decision making
Teachers' behaviors
Incoming information

Figure 1: A conceptual model of teachers' thinking.

Taken together, the research discussed above suggests that teachers' planning decisions and proactive behaviors appear to be the key to classroom management success (Doyle, 1986; Shavelson, 1987b; Rohrkemper & Good, 1987). Nevertheless, a teacher's ability to monitor and guide activities in the classroom appears to be important as well (Doyle, 1985, 1986). If Clark and Peterson (1986) and Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981, 1988) are right, a key to understanding classroom management planning and interactive decisions lies in the investigation of teachers' beliefs and theories and their mediating cognitions. Yet, the classroom management literature, especially classroom ecology research, strongly suggests that there are a number of setting influences on cognitions and behaviors relating to management (Doyle, 1986; Emmer, 1987). How teachers and students think and behave in regard to classroom management matters appear to be dependent upon the contexts in which these cognitions and behaviors take place. As Doyle (1986) points out, the strong suggestion from the classroom management literature is that cognitions, behaviors, and the contexts in which they take place, must be taken into account when investigating classroom management. Missing, however, is a theory and model of school contexts which can be used in investigating classroom management cognitions and behaviors in context.

Ecological psychologists such as Barker (1968) and Bronfenbrenner (1979, 1988) have proposed ecological systems models that describe contexts both external to the home and in the home which can affect individual development (e.g., school, parents' workplace, broader economic and social contexts, culture, etc.). For the most part, research supports the existence of these contextual influences (Bronfenbrenner, 1988). Several have used similar ecological perspectives and systems models to describe contextual influences on teachers and students (for example, Gump, 1987 a, b; Doyle, 1986). A small but growing body of research generally supports the existence of these contextual influences on the behaviors of participants and the structure of schooling (see Gump, 1987 a, b; Doyle, 1986). Doyle, for example, (1986) provides an ecological perspective of classroom behavior settings, suggesting that these behavior settings are made up of several ecobehavioral structures or segments each defined by the specific physical milieu, temporal boundaries, focal content, and "programs of action." Although extremely useful, the ecological perspectives of Bronfenbrenner, Gump, and Doyle merely describe the interrelated system of distal and proximal classroom contexts. Lacking is a theory which explains how these distal and proximal contexts influence the thoughts, feelings, and behaviors of teachers and students.

The ecocultural theory and model described below shares several concepts with these ecological models, but differs in important ways (see Weisner & Gallimore, 1989; Gallimore, et. Al, 1989; Werner, 1986; Whiting, 1980). First, it explains how broad external forces (ecocultural niche features, or econiche features, for short) affect individual development. Second, it posits a hierarchy of influence of specific external forces on the development of the individual. Third, it suggests that cultural and individual beliefs and values can exert as much influence on individuals as material conditions (e.g., socioeconomic status, neighborhood characteristics, and family size). Finally, and most importantly for this discussion, it focuses on the contexts in which the individual interacts with others as the context in which external forces exert their effects.

An Ecocultural Perspective of Teaching and Classroom Management

Cognitions vary across contexts, requiring a theory of cognitions in contexts (Cole & Scribner, 1974; Rogoff, 1982, 1990). One such theory is Vygotsky's theory of activity, which proposes a unit of analysis which mediates between the individual and the social context in which the individual interacts with others (Rogoff, 1982, 1990; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985; Wertsch, 1985). The unit of analysis is the Soviet concept of activity, which includes not only individual variables, but environmental, interactional, and task variables as well (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985). As Weisner and Gallimore (1985) suggest, the notion of activity goes a long way in taking into account both cognitions and contexts. Yet, they suggest that some problems remain. First, there is not a theoretical explanation of where these activities come from. Second, there is no systematic model which defines these interactional settings.

A possible answer to these problems is provided by the ecocultural model of socialization (see Figure 2), which attempts to describe the sociocultural forces that produce and maintain the more proximal behavior settings, or activity settings, in which individuals interact and develop (see Weisner 1984; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985; Gallimore, Weisner, Kaufman, & Bernheimer 1988). Derived from the ecocultural theory and model of Whiting and Whiting (Whiting, 1980; Whiting & Whiting, 1975),

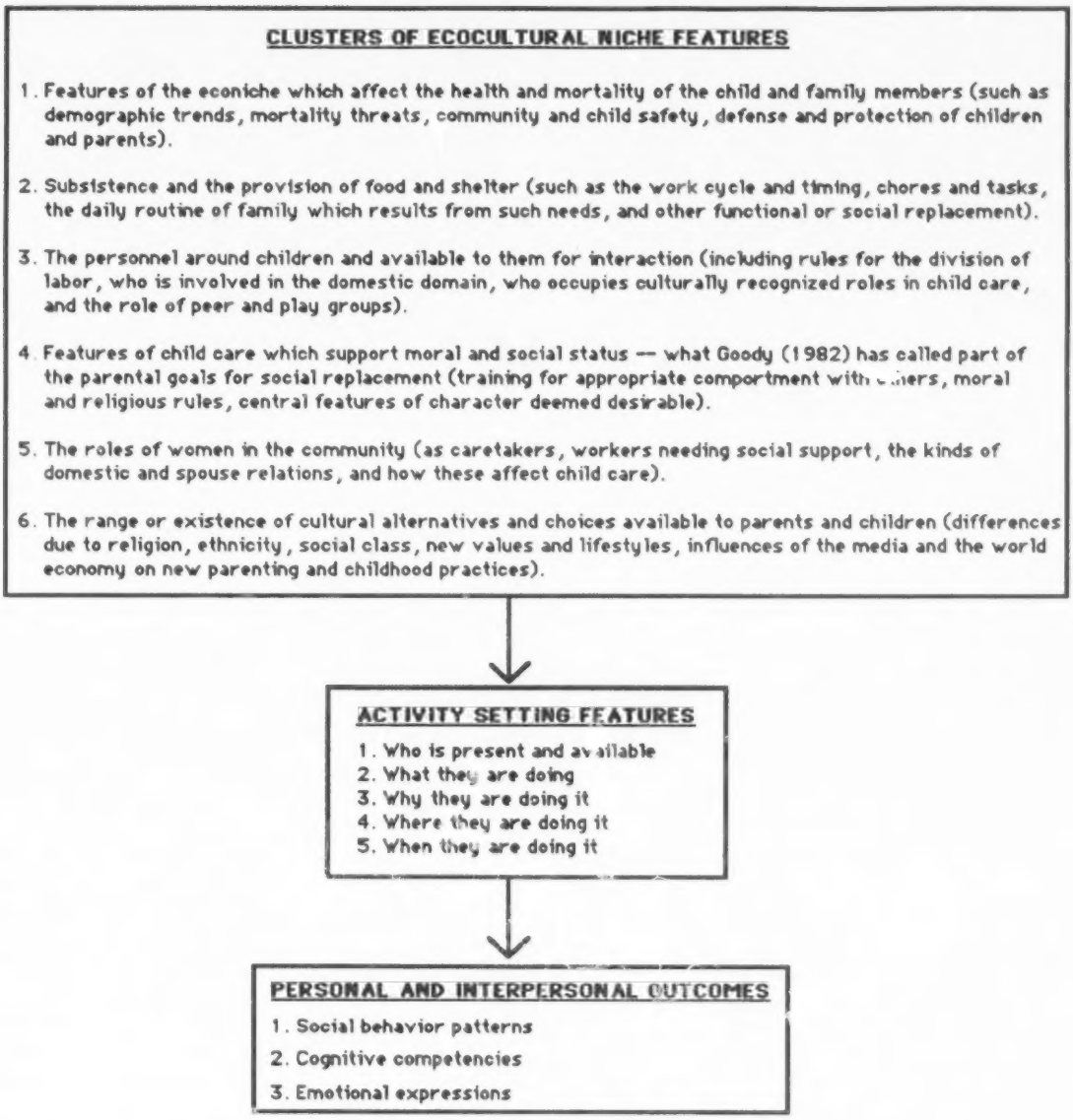
CLUSTERS OF ECOCULTURAL NICHE FEATURES
1. Features of the econiche which affect the health and mortality of the child and family members (such as demographic trends, mortality threats, community and child safety, defense and protection of children and parents).
2. Subsistence and the provision of food and shelter (such as the work cycle and timing, chores and tasks, the daily routine of family which results from such needs, and other functional or social replacement).
3. The personnel around children and available to them for interaction (including rules for the division of labor, who is involved in the domestic domain, who occupies culturally recognized roles in child care, and the role of peer and play groups).
4. Features of child care which support moral and social status -- what Goody (1982) has called part of the parental goals for social replacement (training for appropriate comportment with others, moral and religious rules, central features of character deemed desirable).
5. The roles of women in the community (as caretakers, workers needing social support, the kinds of domestic and spouse relations, and how these affect child care).
6. The range or existence of cultural alternatives and choices available to parents and children (differences due to religion, ethnicity, social class, new values and lifestyles, influences of the media and the world economy on new parenting and childhood practices).
ACTIVITY SETTING FEATURES
1. Who is present and available
2. What they are doing
3. Why they are doing it
4. Where they are doing it
5. When they are doing it
PERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL OUTCOMES
1. Social behavior patterns
2. Cognitive competencies
3. Emotional expressions

Figure 2: An Ecocultural Model of Socialization (adapted from Weisner & Gallimore 1985, and Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

and the Soviet notion of activity, the ecocultural model of socialization presents an intriguing way of conceptualizing the ecocultural process of development (Weisner, 1984; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985). Furthermore, it provides a conceptual framework for describing the sociocultural influences on development as well as the behavior settings or activity settings in which social activity takes place.

Especially important to this discussion is the conceptualization of the patterned and repetitive activity settings in the ecocultural model. Tharp & Gallimore (1988) have taken Weisner's (1984) specific

features of activity settings at home and applied and expanded them to schools (see Figure 2). According to this model, activity settings in schools are defined by: (1) who is interacting; (2) what they are doing--not only the tasks they are performing, including content, but the appropriate ways they are acting, or the appropriate scripts of the interaction (see Ableson, 1981) ; (3) why they are interacting in certain ways -- which includes the motivations that are presumably guiding the way they act, and the meaning and goals of the interactions; (4) where they are interacting; and (5) when they are interacting. As can be seen from the model, these activity settings are similar to Gump's (1987a & b) and Doyle's (1986) conceptions of activity segments, while providing further variables from cross-cultural research which appear to better define the "programs of action" within these segments.

While intuitively promising for use in classroom research, little research has been undertaken using either an ecocultural framework or Weisner's model (see Ogbu, 1974; Smith, 1987; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Weisner & Gallimore, 1985). Despite this lack of research, the ecocultural model and theory may have direct relevance to teaching and schooling (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Smith, 1987). For example, findings from the Kamehameha Early Education Project (see Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; Weisner, Gallimore, & Jordan, 1988) suggest that teacher management practices appear to be influenced by activity variables.

Applied to schools, then, ecocultural theory suggests that certain interactional settings which make up the daily routine of the classroom have been "set up" by an American culture. Indeed, American classrooms look very similar throughout the country (see Jordan & Tharp, 1979), and teachers and students throughout America are engaged in similar activities (Doyle, 1986; Gump, 1987a,b). Some of these common interactional settings identified by ecological psychologists include; the pledge of allegiance or some other starting activity, lectures, discussions, lessons, seatwork, tests, transitions, recess, and lunchtime (see Gump, 1987a,b; Doyle 1986). According to ecocultural theory, these common interactional settings are defined by the individuals present in the setting, the tasks they are undertaking in the setting, the scripts for acting appropriately in the setting, their goals, beliefs, and values, their motives, and when and where the activity takes place.

Yet, ecocultural theory also suggests that teachers exert some control over these common interactional settings by assigning students to, and subtly accommodating and manipulating these settings. I view the accommodation of activity settings and assignment to the activity settings of classrooms (i.e.,

classroom organization and grouping) as the major task or function of teachers. Intertwined and inseparable within this classroom accommodation process (preactive and postactive thoughts, feelings, and behaviors) are the manipulation and organization of the academic curriculum and the social curriculum. These accommodations by teachers influence the ways in which they interact with students and others. Intertwined in these interactive activity settings are teachers' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that manage the academic and social curriculum in progress. The management of the academic and social curriculla are inseparable because they take place together within each preactive, postactive, and interactive setting. In a sense, they both involve planning and instruction and, during instruction, both are group or social processes which teach students how to act, think, and feel appropriately. One deals more with formal education and is centered around an academic curriculum, while the other deals more with informal education and a social curriculum. For conceptual reasons, these may be referred to as instruction and classroom management as they are conventionally thought of, as long as it is kept in mind that both must be studied together, and both involve instruction. This perspective of classroom management and teaching has guided the present research.

Summary and Conclusions

In sum, researchers have built a substantial body of knowledge of effective classroom management behaviors. What appears to be needed now is knowledge about teachers' cognitions which presumably drive classroom management behaviors (Doyle, 1986; Evertson & Smylie, 1987). Teacher cognition research reviewed here suggests that the key to classroom management hinges on teachers' effective planning and interactive decisions. These decisions appear to have important cognitive antecedents, such as general beliefs and mediating cognitions. In addition, research reviewed here suggests that teachers' classroom management cognitions are influenced by the contexts in which these cognitions take place. Which contexts are important in viewing classroom management cognitions and exactly what specific features of context need to be investigated? The ecocultural model described above, and especially the conceptualization of the activity setting, provides a useful theoretical framework in which to investigate these cognitions in contexts. Given this contextual perspective, an important question emerges. Do teachers' classroom management decisions and their mediating cognitions vary as a function of the contextual information available to the teacher? That question was the focus of the present research reported here.

Methods

Elementary school teachers answered questions designed to assess their general theories and beliefs about the causes of student misbehavior. Mediating cognitions, represented by causal attributions, were then assessed using a vignette design in which specific information about the consistency of the misbehavior, and information about the context in which the misbehavior takes place, were manipulated. Information in the vignettes included: whether or not the specific misbehavior was part of a chronic pattern (chronic or episodic); and, whether the principal or visiting graduate students from a nearby university were present (contextual information or no contextual information). This information was systematically manipulated by using a 2x2 within subjects design in which each teacher responded to 4 different vignettes depicting specific student misbehaviors in each of the 4 experimental conditions.

Subjects

Findings from The Classroom Strategy Study (Brophy, & Rohrkemper, 1988) suggested potential grade level, gender, and school differences in attributions about specific misbehaviors and strategies for dealing with misbehaviors. Therefore, subjects in the present study were selected to restrict sample variance. The subjects were 96 female, regular education, elementary level classroom teachers (K-6) from 8 of 12 elementary schools in a large unified school district in Southern California. This school district is encompassed in a predominantly residential, suburban community in Los Angeles County. The average enrollment of the 8 elementary schools is approximately 537 students (455 - 654). Approximately 43.7% of the students were from ethnic minority backgrounds: 30.2% Hispanic, 6.8% Asian, 4.9% Black. The teachers in the study were predominantly Anglo, with an average of 17.3 years of experience (SD = 11.0 years).

Instruments

Four instruments were designed for this study: a belief measure, vignettes of specific student misbehaviors, attributional measures, and intervention measures. The wording of the instruments was aided by discussions with groups of 5, 8, and 13 classroom teachers, as well as a series of discussions with a group of U. C. L. A. Doctoral students in Educational Psychology. Changes suggested in these meetings were incorporated into the format for each measure, ensuring clarity of meaning and statement. Before responding to the measures, the teacher-subjects completed a brief cover sheet.

Belief measures (see Appendix 1)

The purpose in this measure was to assess teachers' general beliefs about teaching and learning and teachers' implicit theories and beliefs about the causes of student misbehavior. This allowed for a test of the relative effects of both on teachers' attributions and decisions. The measure of teachers' general beliefs of teaching and learning (see Appendix 1) was taken from Brophy and Rohrkemper's Classroom Strategy Study (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1988). The categories of causes of misbehavior were derived from a pilot study which was conducted to find common theories and beliefs about the causes of student misbehavior.

In the pilot study repertory grids for seven special education classroom teachers were attained by individually administering the repertory grid technique as described by Munby (1982). In general, the repertory grid technique allows the investigator to elicit the personal constructs an individual uses in making sense of the world, and to examine the relationships among these constructs (see Adams-Webber, 1979; Bannister & Mair, 1968; Beail, 1985; Kelly, 1955). Typically, the completed repertory grid is subjected to factor or cluster analysis, and the results help direct a subsequent interview of the subject about his or her individual construction of the area of interest. However, in this pilot study I was interested in obtaining the common causes of misbehavior suggested by the teachers. This was obtained using a Q-sort technique. The 7 teachers' constructs of the causes of students' misbehavior were listed on separate cards and sorted by a group of 5 doctoral students in Educational Psychology. The group of doctoral students sorted 84 separate constructs into 3 categories.

Despite some individual differences in specific categories, the Q-sorts suggested that the teachers generally viewed student misbehavior as being caused by: (1) factors within the student (e.g. medical/biological, motivation, or emotional reasons); (2) external factors in the school environment (the teachers, other students, social/emotional climate, or classroom environment variables such as class size); and (3) external factors in the home environment (parents' views or child rearing behaviors, or sociocultural factors). This structure became the basis for the belief assessment measure used in this study. The subjects rated their agreement to the three statements on a 1-6 scale from strongly disagree to strongly agree. A 1-6 scale was used to force a direction of choice. In addition to rating each statement each teacher was also asked to rank the three categories of beliefs as to their relative importance in causing student misbehavior. This helped in "breaking ties" in the rated scores of the three belief statements. The

order of this belief measure was counterbalanced (at the beginning or at the end of the questionnaire) in order to minimize possible effects of the order of presentation on the other measures.

Vignettes (Appendix 2)

The four vignettes were developed to describe typical student behaviors and misbehaviors in elementary classroom settings. Two of the vignettes used in the present study were taken verbatim from The Classroom Strategy Study (Brophy & Rohrkemper, 1981, 1988). In Brophy and Rohrkemper's study, 24 vignettes were used to elicit elementary teachers' attitudes and beliefs about 12 specific chronic types of problem students, each specific category of misbehavior depicted in 2 vignettes. In the present study, only the hyperactive category of problem behavior and control for problem ownership was included (Brophy & Rohrkemper's vignettes 3 and 15). Information about the chronic/episodic characteristic of the behavior and information about who was present when the behavior occurred was systematically manipulated. This resulted in each teacher responding to 4 vignettes. So that each teacher would be presented with questions in each of the 4 experimental conditions without reading the same vignette twice, two new vignettes depicting hyperactive behaviors were devised (see Appendix 2). These new vignettes followed Brophy and Rohrkemper's descriptions and format. In order to assure that the new vignettes represented similar descriptions, a pilot study was undertaken in which 9 classroom teachers sorted both new and original vignettes depicting hyperactive and distractible behaviors (another category of misbehavior used in the Brophy and Rohrkemper study). All 9 teachers correctly sorted the hyperactive and distractible conditions into their respective categories.

Four different versions of each vignette were developed so that the consistency and contextual information could be systematically manipulated. That is, the four different versions of each vignette described the same hyperactive behavior, but varied according to information about the consistency (chronic or episodic) of the behavior, and, according to information about who was present when the behavior occurred. Figure 3 represents the different versions of one vignette as depicted in each of the 4 experimental conditions. Each subject read and answered questions in response to 4 vignettes, but

Condition a: episodic condition with no contextual information	Condition b: chronic condition with no contextual information
Dan is a well controlled child. Today, however, he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer.	Dan is an extremely excitable child who can't seem to sit still or control himself. Today he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer.
Dan is a well controlled child. Today, however, he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer. Your principal is observing your class today.	Dan is an extremely excitable child who can't seem to sit still or control himself. Today he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer. Your principal is observing your class today.
Condition c: episodic condition with contextual information	**Condition d: chronic condition with contextual information**

Figure 3: Different versions of a vignette depicting a hyperactive behavior for each of the experimental conditions.

responded to only one version of each vignette. Four protocols were devised so that 20 teachers in each protocol group read and answered questions to the same versions of the vignettes. The order of the 4 vignettes in each protocol was randomized in order to minimize the effects of the order of presentation on the teachers' responses. In the conditions in which context information was given (conditions c and d in figure 3), the order of the information was counterbalanced.

Attribution measures (Appendix 3)

Upon reading each vignette, the teachers were asked to respond to items designed to assess causal attributions. The content of the attributional items was borrowed from Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981) coding system of the attributional inferences of their subjects taken from responses to open ended questions during their teacher interviews. The five dimensions of attribution used to code their data were locus of causality, controllability, stability (see Weiner, 1979, 1980, 1985), intentionality (see Rosenbaum, 1972; Weiner, 1985); and globality (see Abramson, Seligman, & Teasdale, 1978; Weiner, 1985). These categories were represented in the attributional measures used in the present study with the exception of stability which was built into the design of the study (chronic vs. episodic).

The first item assessed the teacher's perceptions of the locus of causality for the student's misbehavior as depicted in the vignette (internal or external). The second and third items assessed the perceived controllability of the behavior (student controlled or teacher controlled). The fourth item assessed perceived intentionality (intentional or unintentional), and the fifth item assessed whether the behavior was seen as global (generalized across settings) or specific (limited to certain contexts). All of the items were answered on a 6-point scale from not very likely to very likely.

Intervention measure (Appendix 3)

This measure was developed to assess the types of interventions teachers chose to remediate the misbehaviors depicted in the vignettes. Teachers responded to an open ended question asking them what they would do immediately to remediate the specific misbehavior depicted in each vignette. Since long-term interventions represent planning decisions, these were eliminated from the analysis. Only the first intervention mentioned was coded. A coding system for the interventions was devised using methods described by Spradley (1979). Five dimensions of interventions emerged from the coding procedure: duration, direction, intensity, instructiveness, and conspicuousness. Each dimension was coded on a five-point scale. The duration of the intervention referred to the relative length of time of the immediate teacher behavior in response to the misbehavior, ranging from no response to an extended response. Direction referred to the degree to which the responses were negative/punitive or positive/supportive. Intensity referred to the strength of response (low to high intensity). Instructiveness referred to the degree with which the teacher attempted to teach a specific appropriate behavior to replace the specific misbehavior (no instruction to high instruction). Finally, the conspicuousness of the intervention referred to whether the intervention appeared to the classroom participants as a specific intervention or not (inconspicuous to conspicuous).

The reliability of the coding scheme was tested by having an independent observer code 25% of the questionnaires chosen at random. This procedure yielded reliability measures of 90.6%, 84.3%, 68.8%, 76.0%, and 90.6% agreement respectively for the 5 dimensions of interventions. For reliability tests such as these a measure of 70% and above is thought to be acceptable (Spradley, 1979). This suggests that 4 of the dimensions should be considered as reliable, while the reliability of the dimension of intensity is questionable. Because of the closeness of the reliability measure to 70% and time constraints, the decision

was made to include this dimension in the analyses, rather than retraining and recoding the responses for this dimension. However, interpretations of the findings on the intensity of desists should be viewed with caution.

Procedures and Hypotheses

Teachers' responses were gathered at weekly staff meetings in each school. Four different experimenters administered the questionnaires. At each meeting a standardized introductory statement was given which included a brief introduction to the study, directions, and assurance of confidentiality. The teachers then filled out the questionnaires described above. These procedures allowed a test of the following hypotheses:

1) Teachers' classroom management decisions about how to handle misbehaviors will vary as a function of the contextual and consistency information available to the teacher

2) Teachers' classroom management decisions will vary as a function of teachers' general beliefs about the goals of teaching, general beliefs about the causes of misbehavior, and specific causal attributions about the specific misbehavior.

Results

The major hypotheses tested the influence of contextual information and teachers' higher level cognitions on teachers' interventions. Thus, findings related to the influences of the contextual and consistency information on the teachers' interventions, and the relationships between teachers' beliefs and attributions to teachers' interventions, are presented first. Although not major hypotheses, the data collected in the present study also allowed for the investigation of the effects of the contextual and consistency information on the teachers' specific attributions, and the relationships of the teachers' general beliefs to the teachers' specific attributions. These findings are presented next. Findings on the teachers' beliefs about teaching and misbehavior, and on individual teacher differences on selected measures are then presented. Finally, a summary of the major findings follows.

Prior to these analyses, the data were organized to test for possible effects of the four protocols, the teachers' grade groups (Kindergarten - 3rd grade, 4th - 6th grade), and school differences on the dependent measures. No significant main effects were found and the sample was treated as a whole for the subsequent analyses.

The Effects of Information on the Interventions

The effects of contextual and consistency information were tested first by a series of randomized-blocks analyses of variance (RBANOVA's) of attributes by experimental conditions (1,4). Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, and the F-values for the intervention dimensions across the experimental conditions. The higher the mean the longer the intervention and the more positive, intense, instructive, and conspicuous the intervention selected. There were no significant interaction effects between context and consistency. Furthermore, differences among groups across the contextual information conditions were nonsignificant indicating that the teachers did not vary their interventions according to information about the context in which the misbehavior took place (whether an outside observer was present or not). These findings do not support a major hypothesis of the study. In contrast, there was some effect of consistency of information (chronic vs. Episodic misbehavior) on the interventions selected. Although teachers did not vary the duration, instructiveness, or conspicuousness of their interventions according to information about the consistency of the misbehavior, direction and intensity of interventions did vary. The results of the RBANOVA shown in Table 1 indicates that teachers responded to the chronic misbehaviors, as opposed to the episodic misbehaviors, with more negative and more intense interventions. Students whom the teachers believed often misbehaved were likely to elicit sharply negative and intense reactions regardless of contextual cues since there were no significant interaction effects. These findings provide partial support for a major hypothesis of the study.

Relationships of Beliefs and Interventions

The relationships of the teachers' general beliefs and interventions were tested by correlating the teachers' general beliefs about the goals of teaching and their beliefs about the causes of misbehavior to their classroom management decisions. Table 2 presents the Pearson correlations between the belief measures and the intervention dimensions for each experimental condition. For the most part, teacher-selected interventions were unrelated to their general beliefs about the goals of teaching (instruction vs. Socialization), or their general beliefs about the causes of student misbehavior in classrooms (internal student variables, home environment variables, or classroom environment variables). The findings in Table 2 do not document a relationship between beliefs and interventions.

		No Contextual Info		Contextual Info		Context	Consistency	Interaction
	N	episodic	chronic	episodic	chronic	F	F	F
		mean/[sd]						
duration	86	4.26 [1.04]	4.15 [1.01]	3.93 [.94]	4.19 [1.02]	1.36	.76	2.30
direction	88	1.89 [.99]	1.61 [.95]	1.75 [.99]	1.44 [.81]	2.26	6.81*	.03
intensity	87	2.62 [1.26]	2.81 [1.12]	2.36 [1.03]	2.89 [1.12]	.43	8.26**	2.70
instruct	80	1.89 [1.49]	1.73 [1.39]	1.99 [1.62]	1.84 [1.55]	.35	.78	.00
conspic	87	4.45 [1.20]	4.55 [1.11]	4.29 [1.27]	4.51 [1.12]	.52	1.82	.30

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

Table 1: Teachers' interventions for the 4 experimental conditions.

	Instruction/ socialization	the student is the cause	the home environment is the cause	the class environment is the cause
episodic/ no context				
duration	.20 *	.02	.20 *	.07
direction	.01	.16	-.06	-.09
intensity	-.04	-.02	.01	.00
instruct	.10	-.14	.01	-.07
conspicuous	.04	-.01	.07	.06
chronic/ no context				
duration	-.02	-.13	-.01	.03
direction	.02	.00	-.17	-.06
intensity	.01	-.04	.12	.02
instruct	.06	-.03	.02	.02
conspicuous	-.09	.00	-.10	.01
episodic/ context				
duration	.03	-.08	.21 *	.03
direction	-.09	-.05	.06	.03
intensity	.04	.03	.07	.04
instruct	.02	.02	.04	-.12
conspicuous	.07	-.09	.03	.01
chronic/ context				
duration	.15	-.03	.08	.00
direction	-.01	-.15	.02	.02
intensity	.06	.04	.04	.01
instruct	.03	.07	.10	.06
conspicuous	.08	.06	-.06	-.01

* $p < .05$

Table 2: Relationships between beliefs and interventions.

Relationships of Attributions and Interventions

The relationships between the teachers' specific attributions and their interventions were tested by correlating the teachers' specific attributions to their classroom management decision. Table 3 contains the product-moment correlation coefficients between the attribution measures and the intervention dimensions for each experimental condition. There was a lack of consistent significant relationships between the attribution and intervention measures for each condition. The scattered and limited nature of beliefs/interventions association was not sufficient to warrant interpretation. Thus, the findings do not document a relationship between specific causal attributions and interventions.

	Duration	Direction	Intensity	Instruct	Conspicuous
episodic/no context					
internal locus	-.09	-.11	-.07	.01	-.10
external locus	.17	.01	.22 *	.09	.01
student control	-.14	.16	-.25 *	-.07	-.10
teacher control	-.09	.03	.06	-.07	.02
intentionality	-.13	.00	-.03	.11	-.15
globility	-.10	-.07	-.04	-.08	-.08
chronic/no context					
internal locus	.12	-.16	.07	-.13	.14
external locus	.08	-.06	.09	.08	.04
student control	.09	-.12	-.07	.00	-.02
teacher control	-.06	-.09	.02	-.03	.03
intentionality	.04	-.12	.03	-.12	-.01
globility	-.06	.01	.08	.17	-.08
episodic/ context					
internal locus	.00	-.20 *	.06	.02	.13
external locus	-.03	.07	.09	.28 *	-.07
student control	-.01	-.10	-.09	-.08	.02
teacher control	.05	-.16	.10	-.06	.10
intentionality	-.06	-.20 *	.15	.19	.12
globility	.04	-.22 *	.24 *	-.03	.20 *
chronic/context					
internal locus	-.07	-.11	.15	.04	.00
external locus	.03	.03	-.05	.03	.00
student control	-.06	-.02	.06	-.02	.09
teacher control	-.15	-.03	-.02	-.02	-.06
intentionality	-.15	.03	.08	-.04	-.08
globility	-.02	-.10	.12	.08	.01

* $p < .05$

Table 3: Relationships between attributions and interventions.

The Effects of Information on Attributions

The effects of contextual and consistency information on teachers' specific attributions were tested by a series of randomized-blocks analysis of variance (RBANOVA's) of attributes by experimental conditions (1,4). Table 4 contains the means, standard deviations, and results of the RBANOVA's for the teachers' attribution dimensions across the experimental conditions. The higher the mean the more likely a teacher believed the item to be a causative factor (e.g. students more likely responsible for misbehavior, teachers more likely responsible, etc).

Inspection of Table 4 reveals a statistically significant effect of context knowledge on teachers' specific attributions about the intentionality and globality of the specific misbehaviors. Teachers viewed students who misbehaved in front of the outside observers as acting more intentionally, and as being more likely to exhibit similar misbehaviors in other settings.

In addition, there was a marginal effect ($p = .06$) of contextual information on teachers' attributions about controllability. The means in Table 4 suggests a trend that teachers view students who misbehave in front of outside observers as being more likely able to have prevented their misbehavior as compared to students who misbehave in situations without an outside observer present. Inspection of Table 4 suggests no effect of contextual information on the teachers' attributions about the locus of causality of the misbehavior. Regardless of whether an outside observer was present or not, the teachers viewed misbehaving students as responsible for their misbehaviors. Similarly, there was no context effect on teachers' attributions about their own controllability of students' misbehavior. They viewed themselves as having the same amount of control of the misbehaving student regardless of whether the observers are present or not.

Attributions about the internal and external locus of causality, the student's controllability, and the globality of the misbehaviors varied significantly, as a function of misbehavior consistency (chronic vs. episodic). Inspection of the means in Table 4 suggests that misbehavior of students in the chronic condition produced a complex teacher attribution. Misbehavior of a student who chronically misbehaves led the teachers to judge him as being more responsible and others less responsible for the specific misbehavior. Furthermore, the teachers judged the student in less control of his actions and more likely to exhibit these types of behaviors in other settings.

		No Contextual Info		Contextual Info		Context	Consistency	Interaction
	N	episodic	chronic	episodic	chronic	F	F	F
		mean/[sd]						
internal locus	92	5.21	5.46	5.23	5.48	.07	14.24 ***	.00
		[1.03]	[.73]	[1.11]	[.90]			
external locus	73	2.22	1.95	2.48	2.06	1.85	7.65 **	.46
		[1.21]	[1.14]	[1.59]	[1.31]			
student control.	95	4.78	4.44	4.93	4.68	3.62	6.33 *	.19
		[1.30]	[1.27]	[1.22]	[1.37]			
teacher control.	95	4.21	4.19	4.24	4.21	.03	.03	.00
		[1.66]	[1.45]	[1.62]	[1.59]			
intention	90	3.52	3.60	3.81	3.90	4.77 *	.27	.00
		[1.62]	[1.56]	[1.80]	[1.55]			
globility	92	3.08	4.95	3.42	5.03	4.29 *	94.05 ***	1.40
		[1.79]	[1.25]	[1.79]	[1.18]			

* $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .001$

Table 4: Teachers' attributions for the 4 experimental conditions.

Teachers' attributions of intentionality and teachers' own controllability did not vary as a function of the consistency information. The means in Table 4 also suggest that the teachers viewed themselves as equally likely to prevent a student's misbehavior regardless of misbehavior consistency. Furthermore, the teachers did not distinguish between chronic and non-chronic misbehaving students in terms of their intentions to misbehave.

Although the context and consistency information did effect change in teachers' responses, it did not change the direction of their responses (e.g., from likely to unlikely). Thus, it appears that none of the effects of context and consistency information on the teachers' attributional dimensions described above produced a change in teachers' attributions across the experimental conditions. Despite the information about the context and consistency of the misbehavior, the teachers viewed the "hyperactive" misbehaviors as being likely caused by the student and not very likely caused by others. They viewed the student as likely having been able to prevent himself from misbehaving, and themselves as likely having been able to prevent the misbehavior. The teachers were somewhat uncertain as to whether the student had acted intentionally. Finally, the teachers viewed the students' "hyperactive" misbehaviors as likely being displayed in other settings.

Relationships of Beliefs and Attributions

The relationships of the teachers' beliefs and their attributions were tested by correlating the general beliefs about the goals of teaching and the beliefs about the causes of misbehavior, to their specific attributions. Table 5 contains the Pearson correlations between the attribution measures and the general belief measures. Examination of Table 5 suggests that beliefs were not associated with attributions.

The Teachers' Beliefs About Teaching

The general belief measure about the goals of teaching was measured on a 7-point scale from a strong emphasis in instruction to strong emphasis in socialization. The teachers viewed the major goal of teaching as both instruction and socialization (mean = 4.0; standard deviation = 1.06; range 1-6).

The Teachers' Beliefs About the Causes of Misbehavior

Table 6 presents the means, standard deviations, and ranges of the teachers' responses to the belief measure about the causes of student misbehavior. Table 7 presents the results of the two-tailed t tests of these means for the dependent sample. The mean for the belief that classroom environment variables cause student misbehavior was significantly less than the other two beliefs, which did not significantly

	Instruction/ socialization	the student is the cause	the home environment is the cause	the class environment is the cause
episodic/ no context				
internal locus	-.11	.17	.19	-.02
external locus	.11	-.06	.06	-.02
student control	-.07	-.15	-.04	.14
teacher control	.07	.16	.09	-.09
intentionality	-.11	.04	.08	-.18
globality	-.09	-.05	.01	-.16
chronic/ no context				
internal locus	-.15	.16	.15	-.02
external locus	.23 *	-.02	.21 *	-.02
student control	-.26 *	-.08	-.13	-.02
teacher control	.03	.11	.01	.03
intentionality	-.11	-.03	.04	-.11
globality	-.15	.06	.12	-.15
episodic/ context				
internal locus	-.20	.05	-.24 *	-.19
external locus	-.04	.15	.11	.06
student control	-.18	.06	.01	-.16
teacher control	.02	.07	-.07	.09
intentionality	-.25 *	-.02	-.09	-.24 *
globality	-.15	-.04	.01	-.09
chronic/ context				
internal locus	-.14	.27 *	.06	-.26 *
external locus	.12	.01	.24 *	.09
student control	-.07	-.04	-.12	-.08
teacher control	-.01	-.02	.09	.15
intentionality	-.06	-.22 *	-.03	-.08
globality	-.23 *	.19	.01	-.19

* $p < .05$

Table 5: Relationships between beliefs and attributions.

differ. This suggests that the teachers believed that the home environment and internal factors within the child were more common causes of student misbehavior in classrooms than were classroom environment variables.

Individual Differences in Interventions

There were suggestions from the individual questionnaires that some teachers' choices of interventions appeared to be influenced by the contextual information while other teachers showed little sensitivity to the contextual information. Two groups of teachers were formed by combining the individual intervention dimension scores within the two contextual information conditions (no outside

belief about the cause of student misbehavior	mean	sd	range
a. Student is the cause	4.35	1.20	1-6
b. Home environment is the cause	4.57	1.05	1-6
c. Class environment is the cause	3.52	1.21	1-6

Table 6: Means, standard deviations, and ranges of the belief measure about the causes of student misbehavior.

means of beliefs in Table 7	df	mean x-y	t	p
a vs. B	95	-.22	1.34	.1847
a vs. C	95	.83	4.48	.0001
b vs. C	95	1.05	6.92	.0001

Table 7: Two-tailed t-tests of the means in Table 6.

observers present vs. observers present) and calculating the difference between the combined individual dimension scores.

Teachers with difference scores of 3 or more for at least 2 of the 5 dimensions of interventions were labeled "changers" while the teachers who did not meet this criterion were labeled "non-changers." This procedure yielded 38 "changers" whose interventions appeared to have been influenced by the contextual information, and 58 "non-changers" whose interventions did not appear to have been influenced by the contextual information.

The means of the attribution scores of the two groups were compared using split plot ANOVA's. Investigation of the means indicates that the groups made similar causal attributions across the experimental conditions, suggesting that differences in causal attributions were not the reason for the group differences in interventions.

A contingency table analysis for protocol was significant ($p = .02$) suggesting that the group differences between the "changers" and "non-changers" could be due to the significantly higher percentage of the "changers" group responding to protocol 1. The content of protocol 1 was compared to the contents of the other three protocols to investigate potential reasons for this finding. None was found. The contingency table analyses of the two groups were nonsignificant for grade level, grade group (although

there was an indication of a nonsignificant trend for this variable, $p < .065$), school, and belief groups, suggesting that the differences between the groups were not due to these between subject factors. Finally, an informal analysis of the individual teachers' specific interventions revealed no differences between the types of interventions for teachers in the two groups.

In sum, there was a subgroup of teachers whose interventions appeared to be influenced by the contextual information presented in the vignettes. Except for a nonsignificant trend of the primary teachers being more likely influenced by the contextual information, no other between subject variable of note was implicated as a contributor to the differences in the interventions of the "changers" and "non-changers" groups.

Individual Differences in Beliefs

Individual differences in the belief measures of the goals of teaching and the causes of misbehavior were investigated. Three distinct groups emerged from the belief measure of the goals of teaching (instruction vs. socialization): 28 teachers felt that their major goal was to instruct students, 28 teachers felt that their major goal was to socialize students, and 39 teachers felt that their major goal was both instruction and socialization. A series of split-plot ANOVA's revealed no significant main effects of the grouping variable on the intervention and attribution dimensions.

The belief measure in which the teachers ranked the likeliness of the 3 general causes of misbehavior (internal student factors, home environment factors, and classroom environment factors) in causing classroom misbehaviors revealed 3 distinct groups: 48 teachers who viewed home environment factors as the most likely causes of misbehavior, 31 teachers who viewed internal student factors as the most likely causes of misbehavior, and 15 teachers who viewed classroom environment factors as the most likely causes of misbehavior. A series of split-plot ANOVA's showed no significant main effects of the belief groups on the dependent measures. In sum, analyses of subgroups based on responses to the belief measures yielded nonsignificant effects on the teachers' causal attributions about specific misbehaviors and their specific intervention decisions.

Summary of Major Results

In summary, the findings from the vignette responses failed to confirm the major hypotheses which guided the study. Teachers' interventions remained relatively stable across the context and consistency conditions. Overall, the teachers responded to the hyperactive misbehaviors with

interventions that were extended, negative, relatively mild, and conspicuous. Teachers did not attempt to teach specific appropriate behaviors to replace the specific misbehavior. Teachers' interventions appeared to be unrelated to their general beliefs about their goals of teaching, their beliefs about the causes of misbehavior, and their specific attributions about the misbehavior.

One positive finding is consistent with the major hypothesis of the study, teachers varied the direction and intensity of their interventions according to whether the misbehavior was part of a chronic pattern or not. Teachers responded to a chronic hyperactive misbehavior, as opposed to an episodic hyperactive misbehavior, with more negative and more intense interventions.

Teachers' specific attributions varied according to the information about the context and consistency of the misbehavior. Teachers responded to students who misbehaved in front of the outside observers as acting more intentionally, and as being more likely to act similarly in other settings than students who misbehaved when an outside observer was not present. They responded to students who chronically misbehave, as opposed to misbehaving students who rarely misbehave, as being more responsible, and others less responsible, for a specific hyperactive misbehavior. They also responded to the chronically misbehaving student as being less likely in control of his actions, and more likely to exhibit similar behaviors in other settings.

Despite effects of the context and consistency information, teachers' specific attributions remained relatively stable. Teachers responded to specific hyperactive misbehaviors, regardless of the contextual and consistency information, as being caused by the student and not others. They responded to the misbehaving student as having been able to prevent the misbehavior, and as likely to exhibit similar misbehaviors in other settings. Teachers' specific attributions were unrelated to their general beliefs of the goals of teaching and the general beliefs of the causes of misbehavior.

Discussion and Conclusions

This study was designed from the perspective that cognitions are inseparable from the context in which they take place. From this perspective, two theoretical models guided the research: an ecocultural model of socialization and a complex decision making model. In the present work, these two models were viewed as complementary. The complex decision making model was used to describe teachers' classroom management cognitions. The ecocultural model was used to describe the classroom context in which these

teacher cognitions take place. A discussion of the findings on the influence of the classroom context on teachers' classroom management decisions and the implications of these findings for the ecocultural model is presented first. A discussion of the findings on the influence of higher level cognitions and implications of these findings for the decision making model follows.

The Influence of Context

This study was concerned with the influence of context on teachers' interactive classroom management decisions. The major question posed was: Do teachers' classroom management decisions vary as a function of the contextual information available to the teacher? Although there is considerable theory and tentative evidence suggesting that context influences teachers' classroom management decisions, the results of this study did not confirm this hypothesis. Several reasons for the negative findings are plausible. It may be that context does not influence teachers' decisions about how to handle student misbehaviors. This does not seem reasonable since common sense and findings from existing research suggest that teachers perceive and react differently to seemingly similar misbehaviors depending upon the setting in which the misbehaviors take place (see Doyle, 1986). Thus, the negative findings suggest possible problems with the design or the measures and vignettes used in the study.

First, it is possible that contextual information is not relevant for the hyperactive misbehaviors depicted in the vignettes. It may be that hyperactive misbehaviors evoke a bias of individual behavior-causation such that contextual influences are not considered. That is, hyperactive behaviors are considered to be pervasive, "fixed", and relatively unamenable to change. Recall that the teachers viewed these hyperactive misbehaviors as global -- generalized across settings. This is consistent with the extensive literature on the etiology of hyperactivity (see Barkley, 1988; Ross & Ross, 1982) which provides the most support for genetic and biological causes. It is possible that different types of problem behaviors (e.g., inattention, lack of motivation, social withdrawl, etc.) may have elicited different responses and evoked teacher responses which are more sensitive to contextual influences. An important aspect of future research on teachers' decisions would be the study of the effects of contextual information on the perception and handling of misbehaviors on a range of behavior problems. The exclusive focus on hyperactive behavior problems in this study may have limited the teachers' responses.

Another possible reason for the lack of effect of context is that the contextual information provided in the vignettes was not salient or powerful. The presence of the principal or observers from a nearby university may not have been perceived as important. Having observers present may be a common occurrence in classrooms, thus, their presence may not have been perceived by the teachers as effecting student behavior. Furthermore, merely mentioning that outside observers are present does not capture the complexity of the classroom context. A wide range of interdependent forces and processes appear to make up and influence the classroom context (Doyle, 1986; Gump, 1987 a,b; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). It may have been presumptuous to suggest that a single, isolated cue could represent the richness of the classroom context in the broader sense.

It may also be that the activity setting feature of who is present and available may not be as salient as some of the other activity setting features in the ecocultural model (see Figure 2). It may well be that the teachers responses would have been more influenced by contextual information about, for example, different time dimensions (e.g., the activity was 2 hours long or during the Friday before Christmas break), tasks dimensions (e.g., a test, difficult or new content), or motive dimensions (e.g., the student likes the teacher's attention, the other students had just teased him). Research needs to be undertaken to investigate the relative salience of the activity setting features of the ecocultural model presented here on teachers' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.

Finally, it may be that the teachers were not influenced by the contextual information because they have an individual, rather than a contextual, frame of reference. The vignettes may have forced the teachers to focus on the individual misbehaving student. Research reviewed by Clark and Peterson (1986) suggests that teachers base the majority of their interactive decisions on student behaviors and characteristics. This appears to be especially so for teachers' interactive decisions concerned with classroom management matters (Clark & Peterson, 1986). This focus may be a reasonable strategy for teachers in processing information to base their classroom management decisions, given the complexity of the classroom context and the speed with which teachers must make interactive decisions (see Shavelson, 1987b).

Teachers may have more time to use a contextual frame of reference before and after teaching when they make their planning decisions. For example, teachers plan classroom activities rather than task analyses based on individual students (Shavelson, 1987a). Furthermore, in an effort to individualize

work, teachers typically group students in various ways and then base their planning decisions on these individual groups (Shavelson, 1987a). Finally, what differentiates ineffective and effective classroom managers are their abilities to prevent misbehavior (Kounin, 1970). They do this largely by planning, establishing, and maintaining a classroom management system, not by effectively dealing with individuals once they have misbehaved (Brophy, 1988; Doyle, 1986; Evertson & Smylie, 1987; Kounin, 1970).

Taken together, this research suggests a tendency for teachers to focus on broader contextual frames of reference rather than individual students when making planning decisions. Contextual information may have a greater influence on teachers' decisions once they have had time to reflect on it. From this viewpoint, the contextual information investigated in the present study may have influenced teachers' subsequent planning of longer term disciplinary interventions. These planning decisions were not investigated.

The findings in the present study on the influence of contextual information on teachers' attributions may suggest one way that context may influence teachers' planning decisions. Contextual information did appear to affect teachers' causal attributions about the intentionality and globality of the student's misbehavior. While these specific attributions did not affect the immediate interactive decisions of intervention, they may have, in some fashion, influenced subsequent planning decisions. This is consistent with findings from Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981, 1988) study which suggests that specific attributions affect teachers' planning decisions of longer-term disciplinary interventions for chronic misbehaviors.

Implications for the Ecocultural Model

One problem with interpreting the implications of the findings for the ecocultural model is that there may be differing views of "who" is included in the activity setting. It should be emphasized that the activity setting is central to the ecocultural model, and who is present and interacting helps define the activity setting (see Figure 2). If the student is not considered part of the activity setting then the results of the present study are not consistent with the ecocultural model since information about the principal or other observers present did not influence the higher level cognitions and decisions of the teachers. However, if the individual student is viewed as part of the activity setting then the findings are consistent with the ecocultural model since information about the individual student did influence some aspects of the

teachers' decisions. From this view, the findings suggest that the individual student needs to be included in the activity setting feature of who is present and available in the ecocultural model.

This issue of interpretation is a major problem with the present study. On the surface it appeared that the separation of context and the individual student was clear. In one sense individual variance was controlled by accounting for gender and the type of misbehavior. The "contextual" information about the consistency of behavior and who was present and available in the context in which the misbehavior took place was then varied. From a perspective which includes the individual student in the activity setting, the effects of the same contextual variable (who was present in the activity setting in which the misbehavior took place) was being compared. However, from a perspective which does not include the individual student in the activity setting, the effects of the "individual" variable of consistency of behavior was compared with the effects of the "contextual" variable of who was present and available.

This problem of interpretation may be more than a methodological one. At the heart of this problem is the differing views of context presented in the introduction. The traditional view of context is one which separates the individual from the context in which the individual is thinking and behaving. In such investigations individual variables are separate and disembeded from contextual variables. Thus, the main effects of both within-individual variables and context, and the effects of the interaction between the individual and the context can be investigated. However, the contextual perspective views the individual as inseparable from context. From this contextual perspective, it is difficult to separate or disembed variables in an investigation. Can context be everything? The design of the present study cannot resolve this issue. Future research needs to address the dilemma of where the individual student fits into classroom activity settings as conceptualized in the ecocultural model.

The Influence of Higher Level Cognitions

The major question posed from the cognitive perspective was: Do teachers' classroom management decisions vary as a function of their higher level general beliefs and specific attributions? Although there is considerable theory and evidence suggesting that teachers' higher level cognitions do influence their interactive decisions, the results of this study did not provide strong, positive evidence, as teachers' classroom management decisions did not vary according to their general beliefs or their specific attributions about the misbehavior. There are several plausible reasons for the findings.

First, the belief and attribution measures may not have been adequate enough to get at the complex beliefs and attributions that the literature suggests are important influences on classroom management decisions. Second, the teachers in the sample may have been so similar that there was not enough variance in the belief and attribution measures to show the influence of their higher level cognitions on their decisions. In fact, the central finding of this study was the stability of the teachers' cognitions across all measures. A majority of the teachers did not vary their interventions across the conditions. This finding is consistent with Kounin's (1970) finding that teachers do not differ in the ways that they handle misbehaviors. It appears that the teachers share a response set to these hyperactive misbehaviors which is extended, negative, moderate in intensity, non-instructive, and conspicuous. This finding is in part consistent with Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981, 1988) findings for chronic hyperactive misbehaviors in which teachers handled the hyperactive misbehaviors in controlling and punitive ways.

The teachers also tended to form similar causal attributions regardless of the information presented. For example, the teachers' tended to view the target students, and not others (e.g., teachers, the outside observers, other students) as responsible for misbehavior. This finding supports Brophy and Rohrkemper's (1981, 1988) findings for chronic misbehaviors, and extends this finding to episodic misbehaviors as well. In the discussion of their study, Brophy and Rohrkemper (1981, 1988) point out the similarities of teachers' attributional inferences and their subsequent decisions to the findings of several attributional studies of individuals' attributions in helping situations (see also Weiner, 1980, 1985). Brophy and Rohrkemper suggest that in the classroom these "lay" attributions can be counterproductive, resulting in a deteriorating teacher-student relationship and an escalation of the behavior problem. They suggest that teachers need to replace these "lay" attributions and decisions with more professional patterns of thinking which are better suited for the goals and obligations of the teacher role.

Finally, the teachers displayed similar beliefs about the goals of teaching and the causes of misbehavior. The teachers in the sample believed that the home environment (read parents) and within-student characteristics were more likely causes of student misbehaviors than classroom environment variables. This finding supports numerous studies (see Medway, 1979; Vernberg & Medway, 1981) which suggest that teachers view students and parents, and not themselves, as the causes of behavior problems in school. However, one of the most consistent findings of teacher effectiveness research is that teacher behaviors and other external classroom variables can, and often do, cause misbehaviors in the

classroom (see Kounin, 1970; Brophy, 1988; Doyle, 1986; Emmer, 1987). It appears that teachers hold "naive" theories and beliefs which are inconsistent with existing research. This is consistent with the above discussion about teachers' "lay" attributions and decisions. It may be that teachers need to replace these "naive" theories and beliefs with theories and beliefs which are better suited for the attainment of classroom order.

A plausible explanation for the stability of the teachers' cognitions in the present study is the homogeneity of the sample: the teachers were females, experienced, and predominantly Anglo. Since the teachers came from the same school district, another reason for the stability of the sample may be the distal influence of the specific schools and school district studied in producing similar cognitions, emotions, and behaviors of teachers. Recall the lack of school and grade level differences which allowed for the collapse of the sample into a single group for the data analyses. It may be that teachers from more varied social circumstances, and geographic locations would respond differently to the measures.

It may also be that the American culture is so powerful that teachers across the country acquire similar culture bound beliefs, goals, and values, and make similar attributions and decisions in regard to typical behaviors (see, for example, Goodlad, 1984). Future research is needed on teacher groups that differ on such variables as ethnicity, geographic location, SES, experience, types of students taught (special education vs. regular education), etc. This interpretation of the findings is consistent with the ecocultural model, suggesting the impact of a broad, distal ecocultural niche on teachers' cognitions. As this aspect of the ecocultural model was not investigated in the present study, this point was not tested. Future research might include an investigation of the institutional influences of the American school culture, and American culture in general, on teachers' classroom management decisions. Furthermore, findings from this study suggest that future research on classroom management decisions may need to take these distal contextual influences into account.

Implications for the Decision-Making Model

In discussing the implications of these findings to the complex decision-making model presented, differing interpretations must once again be considered. The effect of consistency on the direction and intensity of interventions suggests that the teachers based some part of their intervention decision on immediate, incoming information. It could be that teachers used this information to formulate a specific

attribution of consistency or stability of behavior, which, in turn, influenced their intervention decisions. Thus, the effect of consistency information may represent the influence of the attributional dimension of stability (Weiner, 1985) on teachers' classroom management decisions. From this view, the positive finding of consistency information could confirm, in some part, the complex decision-making model presented in this work.

Overall, however, the findings of the belief and attribution measures do not appear to confirm the complex decision-making model presented. None of the other dimensions of the teachers' attributions influenced their decisions, and their general beliefs did not influence their attributions or their decisions. Findings from this study are consistent with the notion that teachers do not make complicated decisions in classrooms (see Duphy, 1981). Rather, teachers' interactive decisions appear to involve the choice of established routines for handling misbehaviors based on their schematic repertoire of interventions, and not a complex decision-making process involving pertinent contextual information, beliefs, or attributions.

Such a notion typically ignores context. Teachers are able to think complexly, but they are constrained by the contexts, both distal and proximal, in which they teach. One possible influence of the distal context is the aforementioned influence of the American culture on teachers' classroom management decisions. When faced with a myriad of decisions, teachers fall back on culture bound beliefs, attributions, and routines to guide their actions (see Duphy, 1981).

Another possible distal contextual influence on teachers' decisions may come from teacher training institutions where teachers are trained to deal on an individual basis with each student. Once in the classroom, however, the teacher may not be able to make decisions and implementations on an individual basis because of the constraints of the proximal classroom context: in a classroom of 30 students, teachers have no time to reflect on an individual level with each student. This focus on individual students rules out reflective thinking, which may be possible in the classroom if a different frame of reference is used. One possible alternative frame of reference is the activity setting (see Figure 2), which may be a more practical basis for decisions regarding classroom organization and management. As discussed previously, classroom activity settings are the patterned and repetitive contexts in which teachers and students interact in goal directed activity (see Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). This unit of analysis takes into account not only the individual students' behaviors, cognitions, and emotions, but also those same elements in the teacher

and the other students involved in the interactions within the setting, along with the cultural meaning of the interaction and the tasks of the setting as well. Thus, activity settings better approximate the complex social environment of the classroom allowing for a much broader and deeper analysis (Smith, 1987; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). The classroom management literature (see Doyle, 1986; Brophy, 1988), and the literature on teachers' planning discussed previously, suggest that effective classroom managers focus many of their management plans, decisions, and behaviors on a group or an activity. From an ecocultural perspective, this change in focus that effective managers appear to be making is an efficient accommodation to the constraints of the classroom context. Training teachers to focus on activity settings would allow them to target their management thoughts and efforts at an activity setting rather than 30 individuals, while still considering individual difference variables (see Smith, 1987).

From an ecological psychology perspective, Gump (1987) has used a similar notion of classroom activities suggesting that it may be more effective to plan and target change at classroom activities rather than targeting change at teacher or student behavior. What is lacking, however, is a conceptual and theoretical base of activity settings in classrooms to guide research and teacher training on how teachers can make effective planning and interactive decisions based on classroom activity variables. The ecocultural model of socialization provides one possible theoretical and conceptual base of activity settings in classrooms. For example, Smith (1987) used the ecocultural model to guide a research and development project in remediating a troubled activity setting in a classroom of learning disabled students. By focusing on the activity setting, rather than individual students' misbehaviors, Smith and the classroom teacher were able to identify problems with the setting and subtly alter the setting. The result was the virtual elimination of the students' problems of getting started on their work. From this study, ongoing work in a local Northwest Arkansas elementary school, and ongoing work in his teacher education courses at the University of Arkansas, Smith has derived a prototype method for planning new activity settings and remediating troubled existing settings (see Appendix 4). However, it must be stressed that this model needs to be rigorously investigated.

An ecocultural view of classrooms has several implications for research and practice. First, it would focus researchers' and teachers' attention to context variables. Despite the findings in the present study, others have noted the effects of the distal and proximal context on teachers' and students' behaviors

(Brophy, 1988; Doyle, 1986; Gump, 1987); and others have suggested a need for teachers to be more aware of these contextual influences on students' behaviors (see Duphy; 1981).

Second, it allows for one conceptualization of the influence of the distal ecocultural niche on teachers' and students' thoughts, feelings, and behaviors, suggesting a specific hierarchy of influence of these variables on development. An ecocultural perspective provides one explanation for the seeming failure of restructuring efforts to change teaching and learning processes (see Tharp & Gallimore, 1988; several articles in Sergiovanni & Moore, 1989; Elmore, 1990). Such reform efforts have typically targeted the dissemination of new skills, curriculum, and/or a knowledge base for teachers and students. However, from an ecocultural perspective, there are several more salient variables which must be changed before teaching and learning processes will be significantly changed. For example, ecocultural theory suggests that personal and cultural values, goals, and beliefs are important influences on the interactions between teachers and students, yet, these are rarely targeted for reform. Such values and beliefs were suggested to be potential reasons for teachers' "lay" beliefs, attributions, and decisions in this study. Ecocultural theory also suggests that teachers make accommodations to these forces in consistent ways with their own cultural and personal values, goals, and beliefs. Therefore, these distal influences and teachers' implicit values, goals, and beliefs, may need to be made explicit if they are to make more effective changes in the patterned and repetitive activity settings of their classroom.

Finally, it would shift the focus of remediation from the individual to the activity. Too often research and development efforts are aimed at changing teachers, and not at changing activities. The literature is replete with failed efforts to remediate classroom problems by changing teachers' cognitions, emotions, and/or behaviors. Similarly, the focus of teachers' remediation efforts in classrooms are aimed at individual students in the attempt to change students, not activity settings. Nevertheless, findings from the present study suggest that teachers classroom management decisions are affected by the individual students they teach. Thus, future efforts need to identify where the individual student fits into these activities as conceptualized in the ecocultural model.

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Appendix 1
Belief Measures

Some teachers believe that their primary goal is instructing students in the curriculum. Other teachers see subject matter instruction as secondary to the fostering of positive, insightful self-growth of students. How would you characterize your relative emphasis on instruction vs. socialization in your teaching?

instruction socialization

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Please read the following statements and circle the number that best describes your agreement with the statement.

____ Students' misbehavior in the classroom is usually caused by the misbehaving student (such as a cold or the flu, allergies, hyperactivity, attentional problems, motivational problems, immaturity).

Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6

____ Students' misbehavior in the classroom is usually caused by someone or something in the misbehaving student's home environment (such as lack of discipline, parents' behaviors, attitudes, or expectations, poverty, a bad neighbourhood, poor nutrition, siblings).

Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6

____ Students' misbehavior in the classroom is usually caused by someone or something in the classroom environment (such as teachers' behaviors, lack of structure, lack of discipline or inappropriate discipline, boring lesson or work, class size, seating arrangements, other students' behaviors).

Strongly Disagree — Strongly Agree

1 2 3 4 5 6

Now please go back and in the spaces to the left of each statement rank the statements in order of their likeliness to be the cause of student misbehavior in the classroom (1 = the most likely cause of student misbehavior; 2 = the second most likely cause of student misbehavior; 3 = the third most likely cause of student misbehavior).

Appendix 2
Vignettes

Episodic Behaviors and No Contextual Info (condition a, Figure 3)

1a. Bill usually stays in his seat during work time. However, this morning the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk.

2a. Paul keeps his hands off the things and people in the room. Just now he has discovered that one of the screws holding the back of his chair to its frame is loose, and he is pushing and pulling at the loose piece. In the process, he is further loosening the connection and at the same time distracting the class with the noise he is making.

3a. Ralph is a well controlled child. Today during a lesson, however, he has repeatedly tapped his pencil on the desk. You have just asked a question and are listening to the student's response when you hear the steady tap of Ralph's pencil again. There are several sighs from the class and you realize that Ralph's tapping is bothering other students as well as yourself.

4a. Dan is a well controlled child. Today, however, he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer.

Chronic Behaviors and No Contextual Info (condition b, Figure 3)

1b. Bill is an extremely active child. He seems to burst with energy, and today he is barely "keeping the lid on." This morning, the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk.

2b. Paul can't seem to keep his hands off the things and people in the room. He also seems to want to inspect or play with whatever is at hand. Just now he has discovered that one of the screws holding the back of his chair to its frame is loose, and he is pushing and pulling at the loose piece. In the process, he is further loosening the connection and at the same time distracting the class with the noise he is making.

3b. Ralph seems to be in constant motion, even when he is sitting at his desk. Today during a lesson he has repeatedly tapped his pencil on the desk. You have just asked a question and are listening to the student's response when you hear the steady tap of Ralph's pencil again. There are several sighs from the class and you realize that Ralph's tapping is bothering other students as well as yourself.

4b. Dan is an extremely excitable child who can't seem to sit still or control himself. Today he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer.

Episodic Behaviors and Contextual Info(condition c, Figure 3)

1c. Bill usually stays in his seat during work time. However, this morning the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk.[There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

2c. Paul keeps his hands off the things and people in the room. Just now he has discovered that one of the screws holding the back of his chair to its frame is loose, and he is pushing and pulling at the loose piece. In the process, he is further loosening the connection and at the same time distracting the class with the noise he is making. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

3c. Ralph is a well controlled child. Today during a lesson, however, he has repeatedly tapped his pencil on the desk. You have just asked a question and are listening to the student's response when you hear the steady tap of Ralph's pencil again. There are several sighs from the class and you realize that Ralph's tapping is bothering other students as well as yourself. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

4c. Dan is a well controlled child. Today, however, he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

Chronic Behaviors and Contextual Info (condition d, Figure 3)

1d. Bill is an extremely active child. He seems to burst with energy, and today he is barely "keeping the lid on." This morning, the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

2d. Paul can't seem to keep his hands off the things and people in the room. He also seems to want to inspect or play with whatever is at hand. Just now he has discovered that one of the screws holding the back of his chair to its frame is loose, and he is pushing and pulling at the loose piece. In the process, he is further loosening the connection and at the same time distracting the class with the noise he is making. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

3d. Ralph seems to be in constant motion, even when he is sitting at his desk. Today during a lesson he has repeatedly tapped his pencil on the desk. You have just asked a question and are listening to the student's response when you hear the steady tap of Ralph's pencil again. There are several sighs from the class and you realize that Ralph's tapping is bothering other students as well as yourself. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

4d. Dan is an extremely excitable child who can't seem to sit still or control himself. Today he has repeatedly blurted out answers and comments during the lesson, which has angered several students. You have just asked another question to the group and several students raise their hands, but, once again, Dan blurts out the answer. [There are 3 observers from a nearby university in your class today. **or** Your principal is observing your class today.]

Appendix 3
Questionnaire

Please read the following vignette of student misbehavior. Imagine it is early in the year and the student is in your classroom. Circle the number that best describes or explains the misbehavior. In the final question (f) describe what you would do about the misbehavior.

Bill is an extremely active child. He seems to burst with energy, and today he is barely "keeping the lid on." This morning, the class is working on their art projects and Bill has been in and out of his seat frequently. Suddenly, Roger lets out a yell and you look up to see that Bill has knocked Roger's sculpture off his desk. Your principal is observing your class today.

A. Who is responsible for Bill knocking Roger's sculpture off the desk?

	very unlikely					very likely
1. Bill	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. You or others	1	2	3	4	5	6

B. Could Bill have done something to prevent himself from doing it?

very unlikely					very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6

C. Could you have done anything to prevent Bill from doing it?

very unlikely					very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6

D. Did Bill do it intentionally?

very unlikely					very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6

E. Does Bill's "in and out of seat" behaviors occur in many settings?

very unlikely					very likely
1	2	3	4	5	6

F. What would you do when Bill knocked Roger's sculpture off the desk?
(please be specific)

Appendix 4
PLANNING OR REMEDIATING AN ELEMENTARY OR SECONDARY CLASSROOM ACTIVITY SETTING

I. If you are planning a classroom activity skip to (IV); if you are remediating a problem activity go to the next step (II)

II. Assess the personal and interpersonal outcomes of your students in the problem activity.

A. Behavior patterns:
1. What are the problematic behaviors your students display in the activity setting?
2. What are the appropriate behaviors your students display in the activity setting?

B. Cognitive capacities:
1. What are the cognitive capacities of the individual students in the activity setting?
2. Are these capacities sufficient for appropriate behavior in the setting?

C. Emotional expressions: What emotions are the students expressing by acting inappropriately?

III. Assess the activity setting as it is presently.

A. Who is present and available in the activity setting?
1. Teachers, aides and other staff or adults:
a) Are there enough staff members to assure appropriate behavior?
b) Are there any patterns of teachers present or absent that may contribute to the students' problems?
2. Students:
a) Are there too many students for the amount of teachers to insure appropriate behavior?
b) Are there particular students or groups of students that create the problems?
c) If so do the problems go away when these students are absent?

B. Why are you, other staff, and students interacting in the setting.
1. Goals for the activity setting *
a) What are the culture's goals for students in the activity setting?
b) What are the community's goals for students in the setting?
c) What are the parents' goals for students in the activity setting?
d) What are the school's goals for students in the activity setting?
e) What are the teacher's goals for students in the activity setting?

* It is especially important to look for conflicting goals in the activity setting, for example, parents' goals that conflict with school or teacher's goals for the students. Remember, all of these goals have an influence on the behaviors of the teachers and students in the setting.

2. Motives guiding the actions of the participants in the setting.
a) What are your motives guiding your actions in the activity setting?
b) What are the students' motives guiding their actions in the activity setting (what are their motives for acting inappropriately)?

C. What are teachers and students doing in the activity setting?
1. Tasks of the activity setting.
a) What are your tasks in the activity setting?
b) What are the students' tasks in the activity setting?

2. Scripts for appropriate conduct in the activity setting. *
a) What is your script for appropriate behavior of yourself and other teachers in the setting?
b) What is your script for the appropriate behavior of students in the activity setting?
c) What are the students' scripts for the appropriate conduct of teachers in the setting?
d) What are the students' scripts for the appropriate conduct of students in the setting?

* Do the students' scripts for acting appropriately in the setting match your script for students to act appropriately? If they do it may suggest: 1) other cognitive deficiencies, 2) motives for acting inappropriately, and/or 3) your script is insufficient for acting appropriately

D. When is the activity?
1. Is there another activity or common occurrence before or after this activity which may be contributing to the problem?
2. Is it a bad time of day/week/month/year to be having the activity?

3. Is there a well defined time for the activity?
   a) is there a well defined end to the previous activity and a well defined beginning to the problem activity?
   b) is there a well defined end to the problem activity and a well defined beginning to the following activity?
4. Is there enough time for the activity to achieve the desired goals?... too much time?-- (once the goals are reached the activity should end).
5. Is the activity undertaken at the best possible time for the desired achievement of the goals?-- (e.g., practicing lining up for lunch just before lunchtime rather than at the beginning or ending of the day, rather than).

E. Where does the activity take place?
1. Is the activity undertaken in the best possible place for the desired achievement of the goals-- is it in places appropriate to the intended tools, materials, furniture and product (e.g., practicing in the classroom to find a book in the library rather than in the library)?
2. Is the physical setting of the classroom causing part of the problem?
   a) are you keeping high traffic areas free of congestion (Evertson, Emmer, et al, 1989)?
   b) Can you see all students clearly for effective monitoring (Evertson, Emmer, et al, 1989)?
   c) Are frequently used materials and supplies readily accessible (Evertson, Emmer, et al, 1989)?
   d) Can all the students easily see your instructional lessons, presentations, and displays (Evertson, Emmer, et al, 1989)?
   e) Is the seating arrangement conducive to the desired goals you are trying to achieve for the activity?

IV. What are the desired student outcomes for the activity setting?

A. What are the appropriate student behavior patterns you would like to see?
B. What are the cognitive capacities you would like the students to acquire from the setting?
C. What are the appropriate emotional expressions you would like the students to acquire from the activity setting?

V. What are the activity setting features that could lead to the desired outcomes described above?

A. Who will be present and available?
1. Can teachers, aides and other staff or adults be added to enhance the desired student outcomes?
2. Can students be grouped or moved in order to enhance the desired student outcomes?

B. Why will you, other staff, and students be doing the activity?
1. What are the goals of the activity?.
   a) Can the school's, parents' or teacher's goals be changed in order to enhance the desired student outcomes?
   b) Are there goals that appear to be absent or implicit that can be added or made explicit in order to enhance the desired student outcomes?

2. What will be the motives guiding your actions, other staffs' actions, and students' actions in the setting?
   a) What motives would guide your actions in order to enhance the desired student outcomes?
   b) What student motives would guide the appropriate student actions in the setting and how can these emotional expressions be enhanced?

C. What will you, the other staff, and students be doing to help you achieve the desired goals?
1. What will be the tasks of the setting?
   a) What teacher tasks will enhance the desired student outcomes?
   b) What will be the students' tasks... what teacher tasks can the students assume, in order to enhance the desired student outcomes?

2. What will be the scripts for the appropriate conduct of the participants?
   a) What is the script needed for your appropriate conduct in the setting?
   b) What is the script students need to learn in order to enhance the desired behaviors?

D. When will the activity be taking place?
1. What activities will be coming before it...after it?
2. What time of day/week/month/year?
3. Can you define the ending of the previous activity, and the beginning and ending of the problem activity?
4. What will be the most efficient duration of the activity?

E. Where will the activity take place?
1. Is it in an appropriate place in relation to the intended tools, materials, furniture and product?
2. What will the physical setting of the classroom be for the activity?--(see Evertson, Emmer, et al, 1989).